Analiza si vizualizarea datelor

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Isometric feature mapping (Isomap)

Outline

- Introduction and definitions
- Algorithm
- Example
- Conclusions

Dimension reduction via feature extraction

Two main types of methods:

Linear Methods

- Principal Components Analysis (PCA)
- Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)
- Multi-Dimensional Scaling (MDS)
- ...

Non-Linear Methods

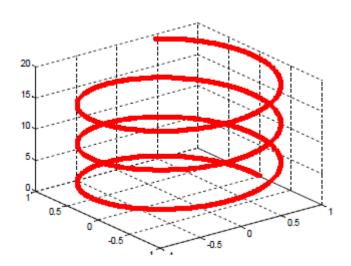
- → Isometric feature mapping (Isomap)
 - Locally Linear Embedding (LLE)
 - Kernel PCA
 - Spectral clustering
 - Supervised methods (S-Isomap)
 - ...

Introduction

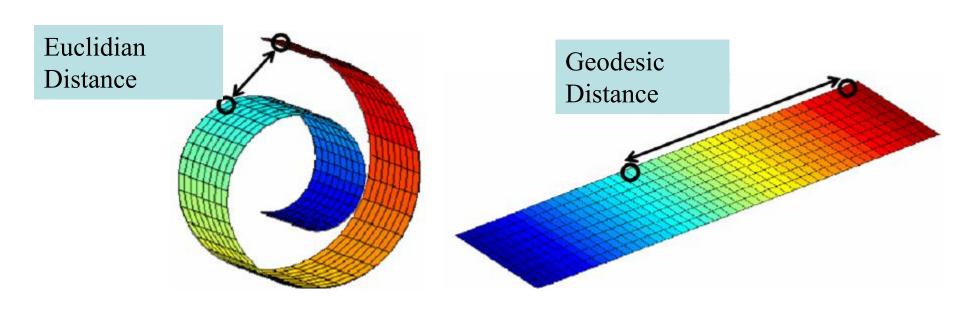
- Techniques as LDA, PCA and their variants perform a global transformation of the data (rotation/translation/rescaling)
 - These techniques assume that most of the information in the data is contained in a linear subspace.
 - Which approache to use when the data is actually embedded in a non-linear subspace (a low-dimensional manifold).

Introduction

• The PCA can not discover the structure of a data set in a spiral form



Euclidian Distance vs. Geodesic Distance



Introduction

- The goal of Isomap is to find a non-linear manifold containing the data
- We use the fact that for close points, the Euclidean distance is a good approximation to the geodesic distance on the manifold
- We build a graph connecting each point to its *k* nearest neighbors

Introduction

- The lengths of the geodesics are then estimated by searching the length of the shortest path between two points in the graph
- Thereafter we apply MDS to obtained distances to determine a position of points in a space of reduced dimensions

ISOMAP

- ISOMAP [Tenebaum et al. 2000]
 - For neighboring samples, Euclidian distance provides a good approximation to geodesic distance
 - For distant points, geodesic distance can be approximated with a sequence of steps between clusters of neighboring points

ISOMAP

ISOMAP operates in three steps:

- 1. Build the neighborhood graph G
- 2. For each pair of points of *G*, compute the shortest path (the geodesic distance)
- 3. Using the classical MDS on geodesic distances

Euclidian Distance -> Geodesic Distance

• Step 1

- Build the neighborhood graph based on the distances $d_X(i,j)$ in the input space X.
- This can be performed in two different ways:
 - Connect each point to all points within a fixed radius ε
 - Connect each point to all of its k nearest neighbors
- A weighted neighborhood graph G is obtained, where $d_X(i,j)$ is the weight of each edge between neighboring points

• Step 2

- Estimate the geodesic distances $d_M(i,j)$ between all pair of points on the manifold M by computing their shortest path distances $d_G(i,j)$ in the graph G.
- It can be done using Dijkstra's algorithm or the Floyd algorithm.

• Step 3

➤ Apply classical MDS to the matrix of graph distances D.

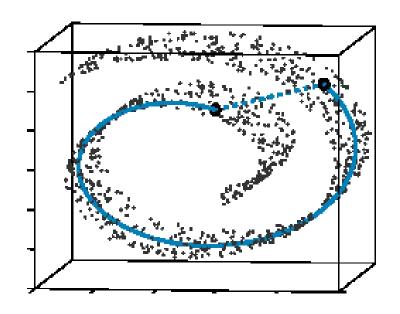
Complexity of ISOMAP

- For large datasets ISOMAP can be quite slow:
- Step 1: Complexity of k-nearest neighbors $O(n^2 D)$
- Step 2 : Complexity of the Djikstra algorithm $O(n^2 \log n + n^2 k)$
- Step 3 : MDS complexity $O(n^2 d)$

The «Swiss roll» dataset

- The «Swiss roll» data set contains 20000 points.
- In this figure we present a sample of 1000 points.

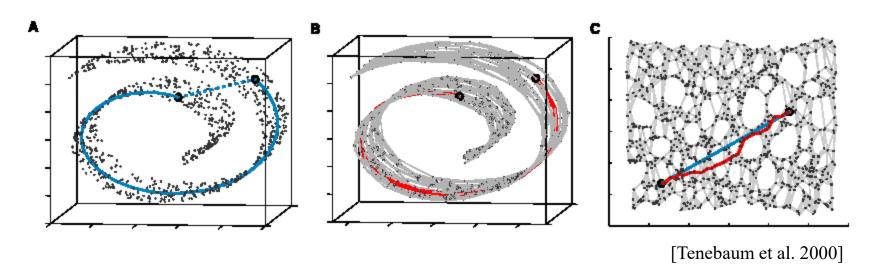
• Thereafter we will represent on this example the development of the Isomap algorithm.



Construction of the neighborhood graph G

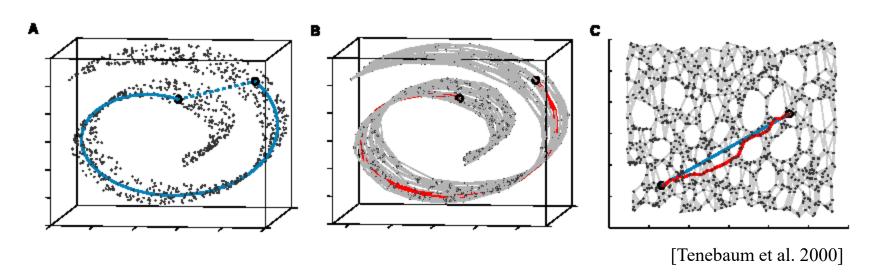
K- nearest neighbors (K=7)

 D_G is a matrix of Euclidean distance 1000 x 1000 of two neighboring points (Figure A)



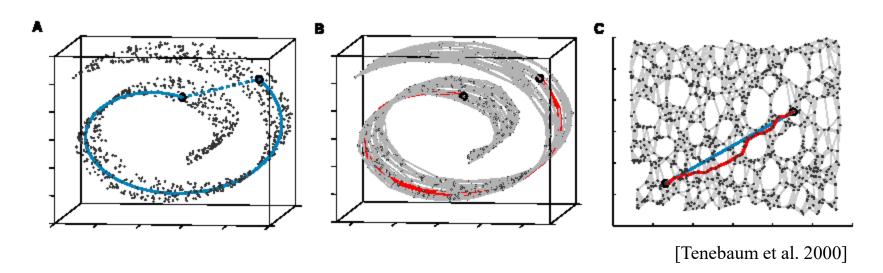
Calculation of shortest paths in G

D_G is a matrix of geodesic distances of two arbitrary points along the manifold M (Figure B)



Using MDS to represent the graph in R^d

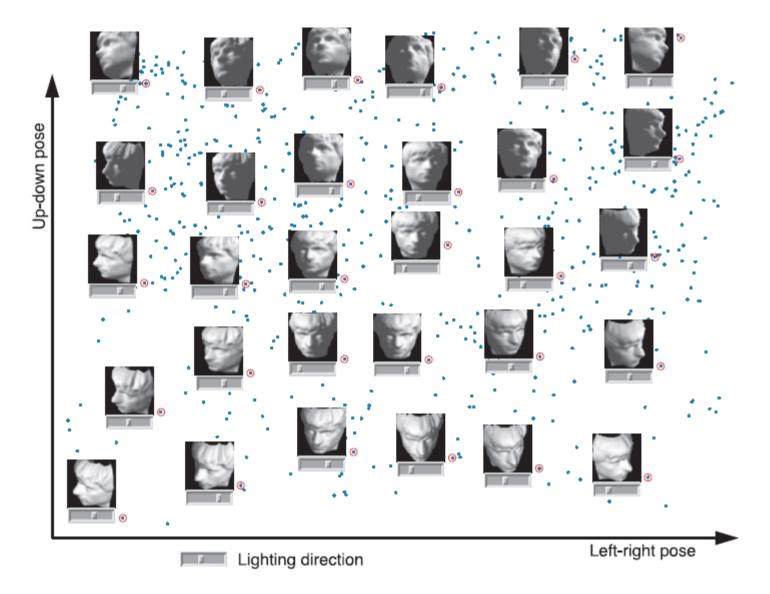
Find a Euclidean d-dimensional space Y that preserves the pairwise distances (Figure C)

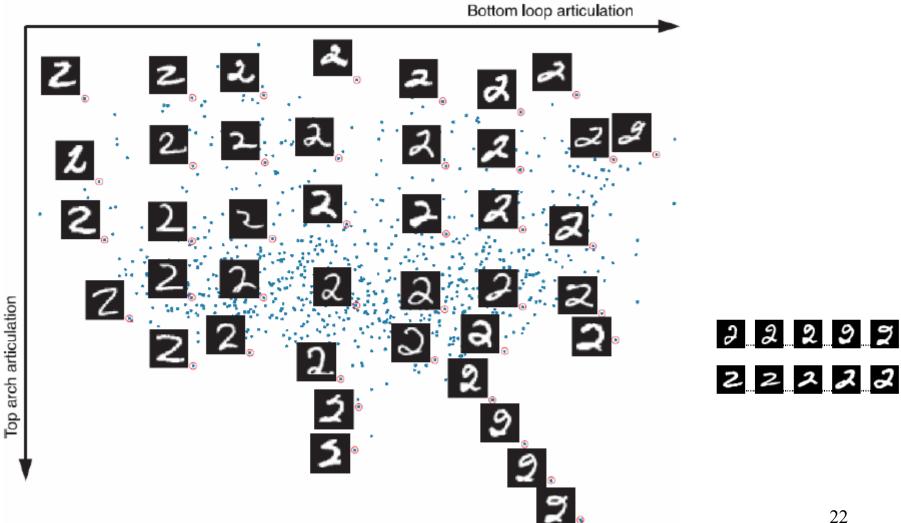


Example on images

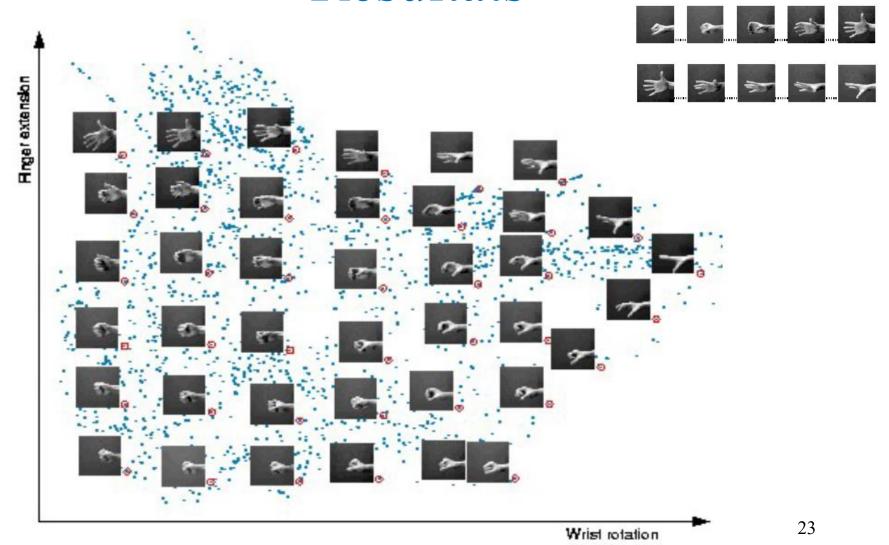


For each image we have 64x64 = 4096 pixels





Resultats



Conclusions

Avantages

- Non-linear
- Non-iterative
- Preserves the global properties of the data

Limitations

- Sensitive to noise
- Parameters to set: k or ε
- Relatively slow for large data sets
- k must be high to avoid "linear shortcuts" near regions of high curvature of the surface

Locally Linear Embedding (LLE)

Dimension reduction via feature extraction

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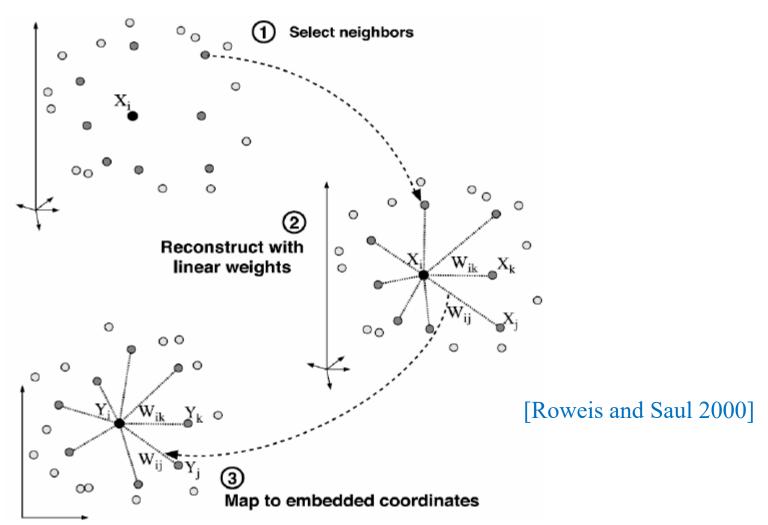
Non-Linear Methods

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Locally Linear Embedding (LLE)

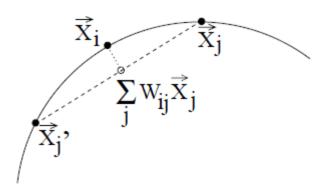
- LLE ("Locally Linear Embedding") addresses the same problem as Isomap by a different way.
- LLE preserves the local properties of the data representing each point by a linear combination of its nearest neighbors.

• LLE builds a projection to a linear low dimensional space preserving the neighborhood.



LLE operates in 3 steps:

- Computes the k nearest neighbors
- Computes the weights needed to reconstruct each point using a linear combination of its neighbors
- Projects the results using the new found coordinates.



- The local geometry is modeled by linear weights that reconstruct each data point as a linear combination of its neighbors
- Reconstruction errors are measured with this cost function

$$\varepsilon(W) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left| X_i - \sum_{j} W_{ij} X_j \right|^2$$

- where weights W_{ij} measure the contribution of the j-th example to the reconstruction of the i-th example
- Weights W_{ij} are minimized subject to two constraints:
 - 1) Each data point is reconstructed only from its neighbors
 - 2) Rows of the weight matrix sum up to one $\sum_{i} W_{ij} = 1$

• We seek to find d-dimensional coordinates Y_i that minimize the following cost function:

$$\phi(Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left| Y_i - \sum_{j} W_{ij} Y_j \right|^2$$

Parameter Estimation

- Consider a particular sample x with k nearest neighbors η_j and reconstruction weights w_j (that sum up to one). These weights can be found in three steps:
 - Step 1 : Compute the neighborhood correlation matrix C_{jk} and its inverse C^{-1}

$$C_{jk} = \eta_j^T \eta_k$$

- Step 2 : Compute the Langrage multiplier λ that enforces the constraint $\sum_{j} w_{j} = 1$

$$\lambda = \frac{1 - \sum_{jk} C^{-1}_{jk} (x^{T} \eta_{k})}{\sum_{jk} C^{-1}_{jk}}$$

Step 3 : Compute the reconstruction weights as:

$$W_j = \sum_{k} C^{-1}_{jk} (x^T \eta_k + \lambda)$$

Parameter Estimation

• The embedding vectors Y_i are found by minimizing the cost function:

$$\phi(Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} |Y_i - \sum_{j} W_{ij} Y_j|^2$$

• To make the optimization problem well-posed we introduce 2 constrains:

$$\sum_{j} Y_{j} = 0 \qquad \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} Y_{i} Y_{i}^{T} = I$$

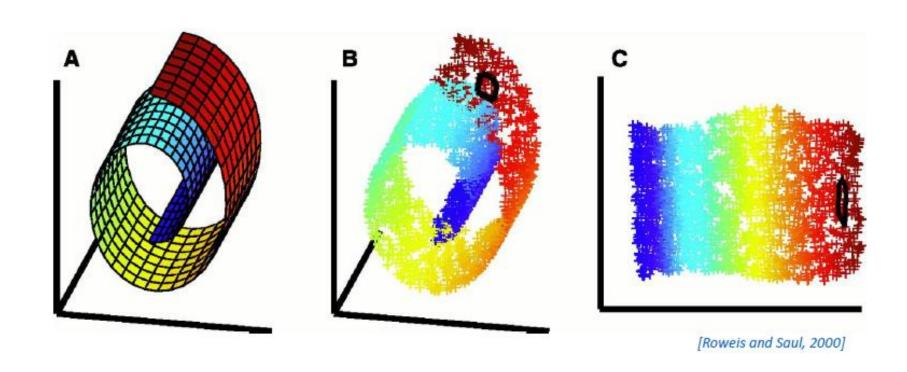
Which allows to expresse the cost function as:

$$\phi(Y) = \sum_{ij} M_{ij} (Y_i^T Y_j)$$

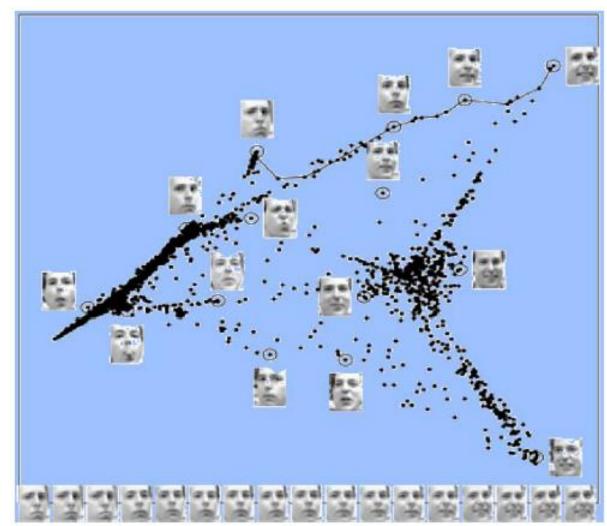
where
$$M_{ij} = \delta_{ij} - W_{ij} - W_{ji} + \sum_{k} W_{ki} W_{kj}$$

- δ_{ij} is equal to 1 if i=j and equal to 0 otherwise.
- The optimal embedding is found by computing the bottom d+1 eigenvectors of matrix M.

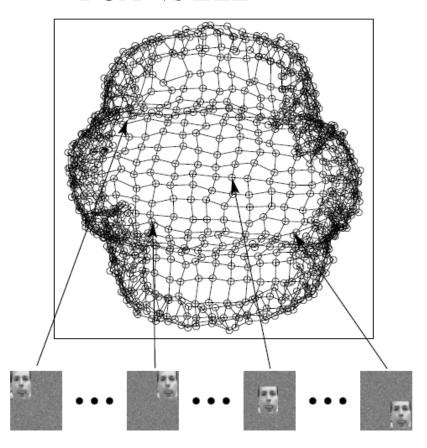
Examples on LLE

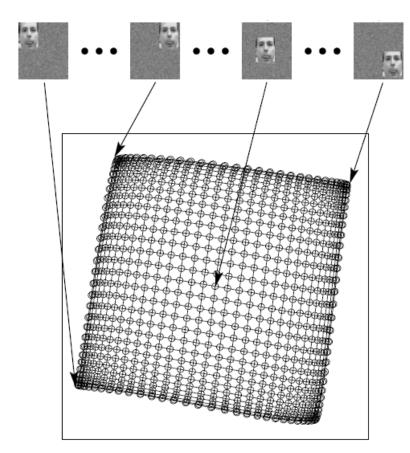


- Initial points represent images of faces.
- In the 2-dimensional space, these images are grouped according to the position, lighting and expression.
- Images placed in the bottom of the figure correspond to successive points encountered on the line at the top right, sweeping a continuum of facial expression.



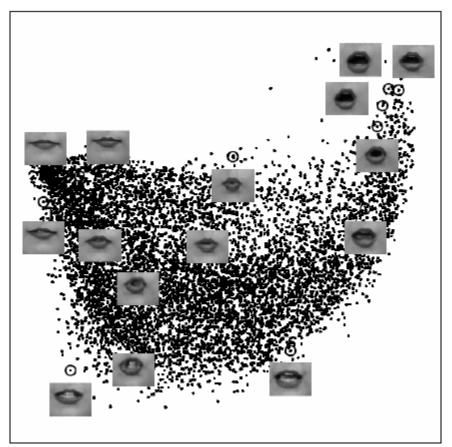
• PCA vs LLE

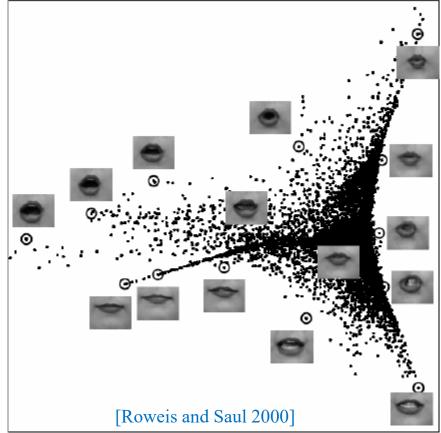




[Roweis and Saul 2000]

• PCA vs LLE





Conclusions

• LLE is a nonlinear technique that preserves the local properties of the data representing each point by a linear combination of its nearest neighbors in a new space of reduced dimensions.

• LLE operates in 3 steps:

- Computes the *k* nearest neighbors
- Computes the weights needed to reconstruct each point using a linear combination of its neighbors
- Projects results using the new found coordinates

Conclusions

- Sensitive to noise
- Parameters to set: k
- Relatively slow for large data sets

References

- J. B. Tenenbaum, V. De Silva, and J. C. Langford. A global geometric framework for nonlinear dimensionality reduction. *Science*, 290:2319-2323, 2000.
- Sam Roweis & Lawrence Saul. Nonlinear dimensionality reduction by locally linear embedding. Science, 290:2323-2326, 2000.

Rappel MDS

We have two types of MDS techniques:

- Metric MDS (classical MDS)
 - We assume that D is the matrix of square distances.

- Non-metric MDS
 - Deals with more general measures of dissimilarity.

• Step 3

- Apply classical MDS to the matrix of graph distances D.
- The coordinate vectors y_i are choosen to minimize the following cost function:

$$E = \left\| \tau(D_G) - \tau(D_Y) \right\|_{L^2}$$

• Where D_Y denotes the matrix of euclidian distances $\{d_y(i,j)=||y_i-y_j||\}$ and operator τ converts distances to inner products: $\tau=-HSH/2$

• where S is the matrix of squared distances au carré $\{S_{ij}=D^2_{ij}\}$ and H is a centering matrix, defined as :

$$H = I - \frac{1}{N} e e^{T}; \quad e = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$

- The global minimum of E is obtained by setting the coordinates y_i to the top d eigenvectors of the matrix $\tau(D_G)$.